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ABSTRACT

Under consideration in this conference was the idea that prospective teachers should be assessed on the ability to perform teaching skills relative to each other and that overall patterns of skill performance, not separate skills, should be used as the organizing focus of teacher certification. James Raths, in "Teacher Traits Revisited: Implications for Teacher Education," addressed the subject of the personal attributes of the prospective teacher, such as disposition, habits, or characteristics, and the importance of focusing upon these traits in the formative preservice period of training. Morton Waimon discussed "The Use of Student Time on Task Measures in Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences." Included in the discussion were observations on the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study and an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses inherent in the study and the Academic Learning Time Model. In the final speech, Larry Freeman discussed "A Program Manager's Agenda for Improving Secondary Teacher Certification Requirements." Reactions to the principal speakers are included. (JD)

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NEW DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN THE '80s

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Second Annual Secondary Education Conference
College of Education
William S. Dunifon, Dean

Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Dorothy K. Franks, Chair

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PREFACE

In the several years preceding this conference, a group of laboratory school supervisors attached to the College of Education at ISU had observed that many students who had obtained minimum competency levels on separate teaching skills during course work preceding clinical experiences had difficulty integrating these skills successfully during clinical experiences at the laboratory school. These students tended to fall back upon the textbook teaching patterns they had experienced as students in school and did not use patterns of teaching which were congruent with the overall program goals of teacher education at ISU. The group believed that the separate teaching skills approach to teacher certification used in this CBTE program was not a valid basis for use in assessing readiness for teacher certification and that alternatives to the separate teaching skills approach should be developed.

The group reasoned that prospective teachers should be assessed on the ability to perform teaching skills relative to each other and that overall patterns of skill performance, not separate skills, should be used as the organizing focus of teacher certification. Over the next several years, the laboratory school group developed procedures which would enable them to assess the degree to which prospective teachers were able to perform patterns of teaching which were congruent with the attainment of high cognitive objectives in classrooms.

The panel presentation portion of these conference proceedings describe these alternative certification procedures. The conference was organized by the group to initiate a dialogue about the problem of increasing the validity of teacher certification in other aspects of the program at ISU. In publishing these conference proceedings, this group

hopes to interest other teacher educators in working on this same problem. The group's use of student time on task measures as a measure of teacher effectiveness in pre-student teaching clinical experiences should be of interest to other teacher educators seeking to maximize the validity of teacher certification standards and procedures.

Once the group decided to present its findings at the annual secondary education conference at ISU, the group turned to James D. Raths, Professor of Education, University of Illinois, to be its keynote speaker. Raths' reputation as an educational researcher is well known nationally. However, his leadership in Illinois on teacher certification and evaluation procedures is what attracted our attention. Raths has contended for many years that separate teaching skills believed to be related to student outcomes are not valid and that certification based upon the assumption of such relationships is not warranted. He has called for a fundamental reconceptualization of the state certification process. Raths' keynote address and further recommendations for change included in the retrospective section of these conference proceedings constitute the major intellectual challenge of these proceedings.

Any good conference holds unexpected surprises. Conference planners were fortunate in the selection of Larry Freeman, Program Manager, Illinois State Board of Education, as one reactor to Raths' keynote address. Dr. Freeman's participation in the conference preceded by one day his own presentation to the Illinois State Board of Education of recommendations for improving teacher certification in the State. This study, titled A Study of the Quality of the Preparation and Performance of Educational Personnel, should have long-term effects on the development of new standards in

Illinois. Dr. Freeman's contributions are found in the taped summaries of reactions to Raths' keynote address and in the retrospective section of these proceedings.

Other reactors to Raths' address were Dr. Frank Lutz, Professor of Political Science and Education, Eastern Illinois University, and Dr. Calvin Jackson, Superintendent of Schools, Fairbury-Cropsey District #3. The taped summaries of their reactions provide additional dimensions to the conference theme.

Many persons not specifically mentioned contributed to this conference which was held in April, 1983, at Ewing Manor. The idea for a monograph on the conference was suggested by Dean William S. Dunifon. Dean Dunifon not only suggested the idea but made the necessary resources for the monograph available. Dr. John Godbold, as Department Chairman, made necessary arrangements for the conference, and acted as conference chairman. Dr. Godbold's long experience in teacher education and, in particular, his involvement with teacher educators holding alternative views on teacher certification not included in this monograph are reflected in the conference theme. Dr. Eileen Kanzler, who worked with the laboratory school group since its inception, acted as assistant editor and was responsible for preparing all taped summaries included in these proceedings. Dr. Nancy Kizer provided invaluable help in critiquing and editing this monograph.

Morton D. Waimon
Conference Coordinator
and Editor
Illinois State University
1984

TEACHER TRAITS REVISITED: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

James Raths

Professor of Education

University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign

Traits*

There are a number of ideas in the field of Education that simply will not die, in spite of the apparently mortal wounds that have been inflicted upon them by the findings of educational research. Examples include the importance of giving grades, the efficacy of the lecture-recitation method, the efficiency of homogeneous grouping, and the utility of transfer of training. (The latter idea is finding a renaissance in the claims made by computer experts about the wide range of benefits that accrue to those who take the time to learn how to write programs.) An idea in the same league with the others is that of "teacher traits." A concern in the research literature for teacher traits was flourishing in the 1920s, culminating perhaps with the Charters and Waples report (1929). Unfortunately for them, their report was published just at the time that the behaviorists and the efficiency experts from business and industry were growing in influence in their drive to reform the public schools. The problem with the study of traits, of course, was they are invisible, unlike behaviors, and thus, according to the then new and ascendent canons of behavioristic psychology, were unavailable for inquiry. Second, the traits that were often identified as important for teachers, by Charters and Waples for instance, were criticized on the basis that they did not define the qualities of teachers *per se* nor even outstanding teachers, but rather "superpersons" in any field. The twenty-five traits that emerged from the Charter and Waples work included health, fluency, adaptability, carefulness, leadership,

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*The term "traits" in this paper is not used with precision. I refer to traits as disposition, habits, character, or wonts.

originality, and many, many more. Clearly these attributes could be associated with successful doctors, lawyers, merchant chiefs, or whatever.

The focus on traits seemed to dissolve during the next two decades, but reappeared with the advent of the computer age and the possibility of locating latent traits through factor analysis. Three studies appeared in 1960 which seemed especially relevant to teacher education and to our topic here. The first was the report of Ryans (1960) which announced that there were three dominant traits observable in practicing teachers. The findings of Ryans' study were based on observations collected in classrooms. The three traits were named: Trait X: warm, understanding, friendly vs. aloof, egocentric, restricted behavior; Trait Y: responsible, business-like, systematic vs. evading, unplanned, slipshod; and Trait Z: stimulating, imaginative vs. dull routine. At least three observations need to be made about Ryans' contribution. First, the traits that were identified were not someone's images about good teaching and effective teachers, but were reflections of the behaviors of teachers in the classroom. Second, the traits, like those generated by Charters and Waples, seemed applicable to persons in almost any field and in almost any profession. Nothing here seemed generic to teaching. Third, the traits identified by Ryans can be found in the Charters and Waples study published thirty years earlier.

A second study of note in this era was that of Washbourne and Heil (1960). Their research classified teachers through the application of factor analytic techniques into one of three categories: turbulent, self-controlling, or fearful. The authors reported that these traits had a marked and measurable impact on the academic progress of students.

Further, the data suggested that interactions existed between the traits of teachers and the traits of students. The authors concluded that their findings lent support to the hypothesis that different kinds of teachers get varying amounts of achievement with different kinds of students (p. 425). This conclusion suggests that instead of looking for the traits of the ideal teacher, it was important to seek out "matches" between the traits of teachers and the traits of students.

The third research of note is actually a series of studies conducted at the University of Florida by Arthur Combs (1965). He was adamant in finding out what were the dispositions of persons who were deemed successful in the "helping professions." Thus Combs wasn't looking for traits associated uniquely with teaching and with teachers but for those that were important in related professions such as social work, counseling, and the pastorate. Combs found that the professionals in these fields deemed successful by peer ratings, client ratings, and empirical measures of impact shared common traits such as seeing clients as able, dependable, friendly, worthy, and internally motivated instead of unable, undependable, unworthy, and externally motivated. In addition, the disposition on the part of professionals to see their tasks as "freeing" rather than "controlling" was a key factor in discriminating between effective helpers and ineffective helpers. It should be noted that Combs did not qualify his findings as did Heil and Washburne in terms of teacher-student "match." Instead, Combs argued that the traits identified in his studies supported the idea that all teachers, indeed all helpers, could optimize their impacts by acquiring those dispositions.

A more recent study in this area is also of interest. Using a methodology quite similar to Combs, Heath (1980) found that successful professionals exhibit a generalized trait he termed "psychological maturity." According to his model of development, this trait is comprised of being able to symbolize experience, being well integrated, being stable, and being autonomous. His results suggest that persons high on these traits are more likely to be successful than those who lack them. Interestingly enough, ACT scores and grade point averages correlate almost zero with measures of these qualities. He reported that "psychological maturity" is the most pervasively powerful predictor of adult competence. In spite of the fact that these qualities cannot be seen, nor can they be measured easily, they are important--just as our common sense might tell us.

Behaviors

What about behaviors? In spite of the thrust of research cited above, the behaviorist view of teaching has prevailed over the years. Competency-based teacher education has been mandated in more than several states, and state mandates in Illinois ask that a teacher education program objective "enable [illegible]ation of it," a sure code phrase for behavioral (observable) objectives (ISBE, 1980). And all of this strident calling for behavioral approaches to teacher education apparently ignores the fact that there are very few research studies that correlate effective practices with specific behaviors (Coker, Medley, and Soar, 1980).

Several examples of research and experience should serve to buttress the argument that we ought to be wary of behavioral approaches. First, the single most effective predictor of pupil achievement, and of supervisors'

ratings, is apparently the holistic judgment of a panel of observers (Cohen, 1981). That is, when students in a course, for instance, are asked to rate an instructor on a large number of factors including behaviors, the single best predictor is the item which asks: "Rate the instructor." Embedded in this rating is evidently a concern for skills, of course, but evidently the teacher's caring, his commitment, his knowledge of subject matter all enter in. A teacher is evidently not successful only because he asks higher-level questions well or makes a point to "establish set" in his lessons. A teacher who ignores those strategies can still rate highly with observers if there are compensating factors. A study by Goodwin (1981) supported this claim. In her research, instructors deemed weak on an overall basis were helped in specific areas of teaching. During a subsequent semester, it was determined fairly reliably that those areas did show improvement. Thus, a teacher who was seen as weak in questioning improved in that area; a teacher who had difficulty with planning was aided by the interventions provided. However, in almost all the cases, the overall rating of the instructor, the rating that is most predictive in student learning and supervisor ratings was not improved.

Another research report gives evidence to the power, at least at the teacher-education level, of traits over behaviors. When Raths and Katz (1982) polled professors of social studies methods courses in Illinois as to their instructional goals, a nice array of objectives was shared. When, later in the questionnaire, these same instructors were asked to specify what aspects of a teacher account for his success in the public schools, very few of the behaviors reflected in the course objectives were cited. Instead, by and large, the professors cited traits. Traits, in their eyes,

were the factors that made the difference. The irony, of course, is that insofar as their objectives were concerned, the development of traits was ignored.

A final research study bears sharing. Morrin (1982) polled student teacher supervisors about the goals they elected to pursue in working with student teachers in the public schools. When the goals were analyzed, it was found that a vast majority of them involved working with the traits of the student teachers. Efforts were expended to make the student teachers warmer, more committed to teaching, more responsive to children, more open to suggestion and coaching on the part of the cooperating teacher. Very little concern was evidenced for teaching skills and teaching behaviors--perhaps because there was a sense that in the final analysis they don't really matter. In their eyes, a successful teacher is not defined as someone who smiles, but as someone who is warm and caring; a successful teacher is not described as someone who knows the name of the capital of Albania, but someone who is knowledgeable; a successful teacher is not distinguished as someone who waves his arms up and down as he lectures, but as someone who is enthusiastic. It is the trait, not the behavior, that bears attention--and inducing behaviors in teacher candidates without addressing the trait itself is likely to be an effort with no avail.

Teaching to Traits

If traits are genetically based or otherwise immutable, then teacher education must depend on the application of strict and cogent selection criteria. However, there is some evidence that traits can be shaped through education and, in fact, there are some who argue that the development of habits is a central purpose of education (Dewey, 1922). For

instance, programs which are small, intense, and well-articulated in terms of goals and objectives are successful in shaping the values, habits, and wonts of students (Jacobs, 1956). In programs in which students merely take courses, where there is little informal contact with faculty, where program ideology is absent or low-key, apparently very little trace of program effect can be found in its graduates. The work of Spinhall (1980) and Heath (1980) also is optimistic on the score. The process involves at least several stages.

Identification

Programs will be more successful with a focus on traits if the faculty, or a small group of faculty, will agree on which particular traits they would like to develop in candidates. Are they interested in developing the dispositions that Combs found important? Do they want to foster problem-solving approaches inherent in the "decision-making" model advanced by Shavelsom (1976)? There is a wide variety of choices--some research-based, others based on ideology, and still others based on personal preferences. No choice will be made in this area, almost surely, without a mixture of the three. It can be anticipated that veterans of teacher education will argue that identifying goals such as those I have described is a different task and that "faculty will never agree on a set of dispositions of traits to foster in students." This may be true, but we might ask: How many of us have tried to engage the intellectual energies of our faculty in such a process? And for how long? My guess is that a number of us have given up without trying. A second response to this comment is that where faculties can't agree or won't agree, their teacher education programs will not be approved. In Illinois, our criterion two already suggests that

programs make some decisions about the appropriate capacities and abilities needed by teachers that are derived from a study of the needs of schools (ISBE, 1980). Given the research about impact on the traits of teachers cited above and the notion that traits and not behaviors are the factors that make a difference in teaching, perhaps the ISBE would be warranted in cancelling programs that fail to meet this criterion as I have interpreted it.

Intervention

Once we have decided which habits or traits we want our candidates to acquire, we might consider the following approaches for developing them. Harrick (1957) offers a good starting place. He argues that effective instruction depends on separating the concepts or goals or objectives we are teaching from the topics or "content" of the instruction. That is, we ought first to decide what it is we want to teach and then select a topic which will permit us to address it. Of course, the content itself may have some value in its own right--and that is frequently the case with teacher education. Making use of appropriate topics, we can give students opportunities to exhibit habits that currently exist in their repertoire. For instance, how strong is their disposition to see pupils as credible and worthwhile human beings? Using a unit on "trouble shooting learning difficulties," we can listen to the attributions our students make about pupils' purposes, values, and beliefs. If those attributions are generally negative and derogatory, we can give students opportunity to look for the positive aspects of their pupils. We can use our influence, which is considerable, to point them to the positive. We can give them experiences which

will enable them to learn of the many potential strengths that pupils have to offer. We can model the behavior of seeing students as having strengths. In addition, Heath (1980) has suggested some particular experiences that might help in this regard, including involving students in corporate task learning or providing the opportunity for teachers to assume alternative roles, such as advisers in non-academic settings or even as administrators. These "stretching" opportunities can give teacher candidates new perspectives which apparently make them more open to acquiring new habits. Heath is careful to point out that development in this sense does not occur simply by the application of specific techniques, but only as the ideas we value and the goals we pursue in this regard permeate our program.

I would like to give another example. We find some of our students who have acquired the habit of making what might be termed "racist" responses to certain situations found in classrooms. For example, negative behaviors on the part of a particular pupil are attributed to his race, or expectations are justified in terms of a pupil's racial background. My experience suggests that normally very little is done to change these habits in our students. Instead, we might, in private, express disappointment or dismay to our colleages, but if such a student does his academic work well, he gets an "A" and a recommendation to teach in spite of this habit that I will deign to call a "poor" one. I am not sure that such a student should fail if this habit resists our efforts to change it. I am confident that we should see ourselves as failing in our obligations with this student and to our profession if we have made no systematic attempt to strengthen better habits in the candidate--better in the sense that the

data of Combs and Heath and others demonstrated that such a habit is a hindrance to effective teaching.

Evaluation

It goes without saying that evaluation is a bit troublesome when the focus of the instruction is on the development of traits or habits. More than in simple paper-and-pencil testing, although it surely exists there as well as a problem, there is an issue of sampling. Are we seeing the student in enough situations and with enough frequency to judge with some confidence that a trait or a habit exists?

One factor that complicates the evaluation issue is the conflict of interest that exists between the teacher educator as "coach" and as "evaluator." When the "coach" is the "evaluator," problems arise. Recent research on "attribution theory" has suggested that a major error that is made in making attributions is to confuse problems of "setting" with problems of "trait" (Jones, 1979). Let me illustrate with an example. If a student behavior is unsatisfactory, one explanation of the weak performance is that the candidate is poorly trained, has weak knowledge of subject matter, or is not motivated to be a teacher. These explanations may be true, all right, but they are aimed at the "persona" of the candidate. He must change as a person to become a better teacher. A second approach is to account for the poor performance in the setting in which it was observed. It was a bad day; this class is a weak one; the cooperating teacher has not been helpful here. These explanations focus on setting. It is apparent that when we judge the poor performance of others, we often look at traits. When teacher educators identify strongly with their student teachers, it is difficult not to "explain away" poor performance by looking at the setting.

In one sense, the supervisors are actually rating themselves. If the student teacher is doing poorly at the end of the semester, what has the supervisor done to improve it? One explanation for the 90% "A's" that student teachers get in Illinois is that supervisors give them the benefit of the doubt, accounting for any poor performance they see in terms of setting rather than trait characteristics. The approach that I am calling for here is a conscious focus on traits in the evaluation process. Notes will be kept, logs will be written, assessments of several professionals will be shared to render the summative judgments required in any training program. The point here is that we need to look for ways to separate the "coach" from the evaluation process. Sergiovanni at the University of Illinois has taken steps in this direction in evaluating the internship program at the general administrative level. A committee of persons reviews artifacts that the candidate has developed, many of which reveal his wonts, desires, needs, and traits. While the assessment process that Sergiovanni sponsors does not necessarily reflect the other positions expressed in this paper, it is a successful attempt to sample widely the performance of the candidate and to separate as much as possible the coaching from the evaluating. By the way, there is a role for the "coach" in this process because, on occasion, there are indeed setting issues that affect the work of the student, and the "coach" must be given an opportunity to explain them to the persons who are doing the evaluating.

Implications for Teacher Education

I want to start out this section by sharing a general concern about certification. I don't think it makes much sense to certify individuals by "approving" the program from which they graduate. Inside every program,

even excellent programs, there is a wide variance in skills and traits among its graduates. Because of some of the problems I have addressed above, such as the attribution error, and the conflicting role of supervisor and evaluator, programs simply can't make the tough decisions that are required on an individual basis. Surely, in flagrant cases, students are stopped somewhere in the program and discouraged from continuing. But in the main, mediocre students with traits that are not helpful to effective teaching graduate because of deficiences in the evaluation system. I think we need professional reviews of individuals. Perhaps this policy implication could be implemented by adopting the sort of system that is currently in place in Oklahoma and in Georgia, where graduates to teacher education programs are given one-year certificates which are renewed only after systemic evaluation on the job. While this is surely a costly program, it should work, especially if the evaluation focuses on traits and not on the behaviors of teachers.

While I suggested that some of the traits I am interested in developing in candidates can be strengthened and developed in teacher education, if we, as a faculty, elected to focus on some of them, I do think we have to take the admission process more seriously and do a better job of screening. We can't let computers do the work for us; we can't delegate admission decisions to the Educational Testing Service. While computers and examination scores might help us in our decisions, certainly we need to take into account much more than those instrumentalities can deliver. Of course, this suggestion calls for faculty time, faculty effort, and faculty thinking. If we plan to play responsible roles in teacher education, we must engage ourselves in these processes (Pugach, 1983).

I want to close this talk with a caveat. Nothing I have said here should suggest that teaching skills to our teacher education candidates is not important. There are a number of very important skills that we can teach effectively and thoroughly in our very limited curriculum space Micro-teaching, for instance, has proven itself as a powerful teaching tool. The work of David Gliessman (1983) at Indiana University has demonstrated the efficacy of modeling on videotape as a medium for teaching important skills and concepts. These are important ingredients of any teacher education curriculum. What must be avoided, in my opinion, is ignoring the very credible claim that students and principals and teacher educators know in their hearts of hearts to be true. The character, the dispositions, the habits, the traits of teachers make the difference. Let's not forget this important idea.

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REACTIONS

(Tape Summaries)

Larry Freeman
Frank Lutz
Calvin Jackson

Summary Reaction Comments--Larry Freeman

Dr. Larry Freeman initiated the reaction comments by asserting that it was frequently difficult to distinguish between sense and nonsense in discussions on teaching and teacher education. The only functional strategy to deal with the resultant confusion was to presume earnestness and best effort on the part of those involved. He contended that it was in the area of metaphors where educators, prone to linguistic manipulation, often arrived at misleading and ambiguous generalizations. By way of example, he offered the recent obscuring of the terms competency/competencies and behavior/behaviors. An analysis of the zoological explication of "behaviors in education as opposed to the conventional moral inferences of 'behavior'" composed the primary focus and correlative theme of Freeman's subsequent remarks.

Freeman noted that the traditional meaning of behavior indicated conduct which might be judged morally and socially. However, behaviorist educators by plural application of the work have transformed meaning and intent to represent discrete, particularistic activities which cumulatively aim toward statistical significance. Thus it is by calculation of stipulated teaching behaviors that effective teaching is being measured. The end result has been the phenomenon of teacher education by accountancy, the reliability of which is "precisely proportional to the faith one has in the accountancy devices." In a stern rebuttal to this philosophy, Freeman concluded that behaviorism has virtually prevented us from talking about anything that really matters in teacher evaluation.

An entirely different metaphorical meaning underlies Raths' conceptualization of "teacher traits," and it is one which Freeman believes is

consistent with the moral and judgmental implications of behavior. If one returns to the authentic Latin root of traits, what emerges is a pictorial tracing or characterization in which the educational inferences correlate with Raths' value-laden descriptors--caring, warmth, understanding, psychological maturity, etc. Thus for Raths, as for other humanistic educators, teacher education becomes a moral enterprise rather than an exercise in accountancy and computation. Just as the humanistic/mechanistic configurations are polarized in 20th century moral psychology, Freeman continued, so the characterization of the teacher we say we want collides with the processes we have developed to achieve that teacher. He emphasized that the evaluation system we have formulated to assess success or failure, replete with checklists, credit hours, transcripts, tests, lists of competencies, and behavioral objectives, is incompatible with the value-oriented goals we have determined to be necessary to be a good teacher. Freeman believes that the dilemma is especially evident in secondary education. He declared that a management system which prioritizes record keeping and cost determination; seeks to reduce everything to measurement and quantification; and depends on computerized transcripts has eradicated the value dimension of teacher evaluation. The end result of this contradiction, Freeman observed, is a mass of "unlocated generalizations and misplaced abstractions" which provide the informational basis for hiring and retention decisions in the school districts. More helpful and informative to the districts are the few evaluative paragraphs written by cooperating teachers and supervisory faculty members.

While there is no "quick fix" to the problem of meaningful teacher evaluation, Freeman asserted that any solution must go beyond simple

grading A-F; the capacity of a computer; and the canons of objectivity. To effect more representative documentation, professors will have to write more subjective comments based on their experience, wisdom, and knowledge, and of such quality to withstand Supreme Court review. On a concluding note, Freeman cautioned that failure to recognize and reflect on the inherent conflicts in the present system is a consignment of futility.

Summary Reaction Comments--Frank Lutz

Dr. Lutz's comments developed admittedly from a perspective midway between a logical positivist and an ethnographer. He posited two principal issues regarding the Raths paper: 1) loose interpretation of the term "traits" and 2) the potential for making dubious attributions from a position of authority. To assess the "Boy Scout" qualities of courtesy, kindness, generosity, and "loving kids" as the distinctive marks of the good teacher, he believed, was inadequate and deceptive. Although a genuine feeling for kids appears to be a quality of good teachers, it was his observation that the best and the worst teachers have "loved kids." "Loving kids" in the speaker's estimation is not a distinguishing characteristic of the good teacher, and too often supervising teachers have overlooked deficiencies in student teachers in the belief that "loving kids" would compensate for professional shortcomings and poor preparation. Correspondingly, to minimize discrete behaviors in the quest for ascertaining appropriate traits is to invite erroneous attribution in the minds of those charged with judgment. What Lutz liked most about Raths' statement was the recommendation that teacher educators address the problem of passing student teachers merely because they completed an approved program. Sole reliance on programmatic certification has eroded our own professional assessment, good sense, and experience. In the process, we have justified inadequacies to avoid complaints, allow for personal problems, and rationalize diverse teaching environments. And in the misguided hope that student teachers possessed compensatory personal characteristics, supervising teachers have assented to candidates whom they felt would not be good teachers because they had little or nothing to teach. It is time, Lutz

continued, to recognize that it is not the fault of supervising teachers if student teachers fail; the only failure for teacher educators is the refusal to help them become better teachers. There is danger, Lutz warned, in adherence to "traits," broadly described. Of more value is the search for students who have something to teach and "at least do not hate kids." In a parting comment, Lutz cautioned against dismissing behaviors in preference to traits until the term has been more precisely defined.

Summary Reaction Comments--Calvin Jackson

As superintendent of a public school district, Calvin Jackson was not troubled by either certification via approved programs or the circumstances of high grades earned by the vast majority of student teachers. The critical area, he believed, rested in the programs themselves. Weaknesses are apparent in courses, qualification standards, and screening procedures. Students who cannot meet appropriate standards should be eliminated before the student-teaching phase of their training. Jackson also questioned the Georgia and Oklahoma policy of awarding preliminary one-year certificates with full certification achieved after evaluation "on the job" by the principal. The main problem here, he believed, is the principal's ability to judge teaching performance. From his professional experience, this cannot always be assumed. A practical evaluation procedure for employing teachers might be for the principal to observe student teachers in their clinical setting and practicing teachers in their classrooms before consideration for employment. While the principal's role in teacher evaluation varies, Jackson believed that strong principals do play a prominent part in judging teacher effectiveness. These principals are concerned with the lack of classroom management skills on the part of student teachers and the preoccupation with lesson planning and evaluation processes as opposed to the more significant task of teaching the kids themselves.

THE USE OF STUDENT TIME ON TASK MEASURES IN PRE-STUDENT TEACHING CLINICAL EXPERIENCES: A PANEL PRESENTATION

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The author wishes to thank panel members Barbara Blunk, Eileen Kanzler, and Kathy Malone-Clesson, Faculty Associates, University High School, ISU. I also wish to acknowledge contributions made to this research project by Judy Martin, Orrin Mizer, Robert Neuleib, Mike Surma, and Sophie Zielinski, Faculty Associates, University High School. This U-High study group has worked together since the late 70's to formulate the certification procedures described in this paper.

The Use of Student Time on Task Measures In Pre-student Teaching Clinical Experiences

Like most CBTE programs developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Professional Sequence at ISU is organized around separate teaching skills each of which is believed to be related to student outcomes in classrooms. Initially, a group of University High Laboratory School supervisors was formed to develop clinical experiences which would enable prospective teachers to integrate these separate teaching skills and practice using them in a high school setting. The first stage in the development of the certification procedures to be described in this panel presentation consisted of a teaching performance test similar to the ones developed at UCLA by Pophaur and his associates. In this procedure, student outcomes on a content-relevant test are used to assess teacher readiness for certification. This procedure was modified and adopted by the Professional Sequence and made part of its teacher certification requirements early in the 1970s.

At the conclusion of the first stage, the group continued to seek additional ways to increase the validity of its certification requirements. This effort resulted in the rejection of lesson-sized instructional sequences as an appropriate length of time for assessing readiness for teacher certification. The dominant rationale for rejecting lesson-sized instructional sequences was the belief that teacher certification should be based upon evidence that prospective teachers were able to exceed low levels of knowledge use in classrooms. Achieving high levels of knowledge use in classrooms required a longer period of allocated time. Consequently, in stage two, the U-High study group decided that a unit-sized instructional sequence lasting three weeks should become the minimum acceptable length of time to assess the ability of prospective teachers to

achieve high levels of knowledge use in classrooms. This shift from lesson- to unit-sized instructional sequences was followed by a series of changes made to further increase the validity of the U-High group's certification requirements.

Stage three in the development of these procedures grew out of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES) reported in the literature during the late 1970s. In this study, student time on task was observed to be related to student outcomes. As a result of these findings, the U-High group changed the primary focus on its assessment procedures from teacher behavior to student time on task (measured in minutes). Student time on task measures are now used at U-High to replace separate teaching skills as the organizing focus of its pre-student teaching clinical experiences.

The panel presentation will consist of an analysis of the BTES and a description of how student time on task measures are being used to certify teachers at U-High. Members of the panel will report on the results being obtained at U-High using these procedures. Barb Blunk will describe results with low levels of knowledge use in classrooms. Eileen Kanzler will describe high-level results. Kathy Malone-Clesson will describe mid-level results. Students Andrew Andreatta, Susan Johnson, and Carla Briggs currently enrolled in the program have been invited to share their reactions.

The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study: An Analysis

The BTES differs from traditional research on teaching in several ways. Whereas earlier research focused classroom observations on teacher behaviors, the BTES focused on student behaviors. Unlike earlier research on teacher behavior, the BTES found relationships between observations of

student behavior and student outcomes measures. It was found that teachers with the same time allocated to the study of a subject differed significantly on the amount of time students in their classrooms actually engaged in learning acitivities and that teachers with more engaged time had significantly higher student outcomes.

Second, whereas earlier research attempted to conceptualize teaching into subordinate parts, the BTES conceptualized student time on task into subordinate component parts. Student time on task was broken down into allocated time, engaged time, and academic learning time. These categories represent a gradual refinement of the time variable. Allocated time is a measure of the time teachers schedule for different subjects or activities; engaged time is that period in which students engage in or attend to instructional tasks; and academic learning time is the time students engage in instructional tasks at which they can be successful. Academic learning time incorporates allocated and engaged time and adds the element of success rate. Four recent comprehensive reviews of research on the time variable report that academic learning time shows the strongest relationship to measures of student achievement (Anderson, 1980; Borg, 1980; Fisher, 1980; Stalling, 1980). These findings prompted us to use academic learning time (ALT) as a measure of teacher effectiveness in our pre-student teaching clinical experiences.

Third, whereas earlier research on teaching attempted to derive a teaching model from observations of what teachers <u>are</u> doing in classrooms, the BTES formulated a model of what teachers <u>should be</u> doing in classrooms to increase academic learning time. The BTES/ALT model consists of five teaching skills: diagnosis, prescription, presentation, monitoring, and

feedback. These behaviors are believed to be related to increases in academic learning time. It should be pointed out, however, this latter assumption of the BTES has not been demonstrated. While helping prospective teachers to increase ALT in the classroom is a major objective of the U-High study, it is recognized that this objective is not without shortcomings or dangers.

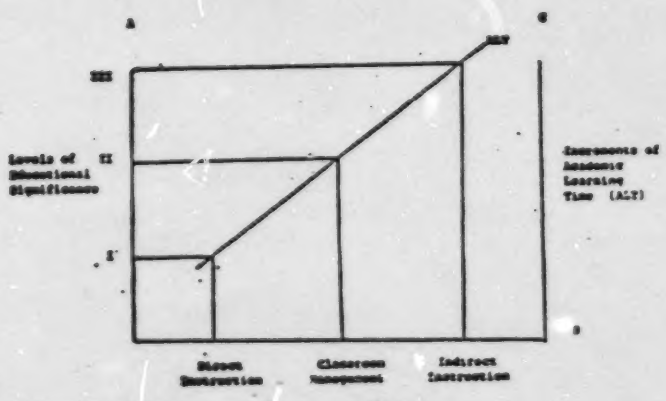
Shortcomings in the BTES/ALT Model

The major shortcoming with the BTES/ALT model is probably its success-rate component. Obviously pupils do not learn what is too difficult for them, nor do they stay engaged when they are experiencing failure. Emphasizing success rate, however, can lead to setting minimum objectives that require low-order learning and that ultimately become unchallenging to students. The same misgivings that educators express about competency-based instruction--that objectives become mechanistic, test driven, and divorced from the real world (Hyman and Cohen, 1979)--have been leveled at academic learning time. McNamara (1981) in a critique of academic learning research laments an "overconcern with static educational objectives" and says, "The result of this sort of research is an enervating, artificial curriculum in which highly structured, mechanical learning is geared to rigid, formal testing" (p. 295). Kepler (1980) takes issue with the narrow view of teaching proposed in the BTES/ALT model. Kepler points out that the model consists of direct instruction teaching techniques geared to producing high success rates in classrooms and that the exclusive use of direct techniques results in passive learners which limits the possibility of achieving high-order objectives.

The U-High/ALT Model

Our objective is to train prospective teachers to increase ALT in classrooms but to ensure that these increases do not result in the reduction of levels of educational significance in classrooms. The principal procedure we used to attain this objective was to view the BTES/ALT model from the context of curriculum theory and research. The function of curriculum theory has always been to find ways of increasing the significance of subject matter and its use in schools. Curriculum theorists believe that what is taught in schools, and the rationale for teaching it, will determine how it is taught and how well students will learn. Generally, curriculum theories have been divided into subject-centered, childcentered, and social-centered categories. Since the 1940s, however, most curriculum theorists have tried to develop an interactive curriculum theory which would enable teachers to achieve the benefits of a synthesis. The U-High/ALT model is based upon this approach to curriculum development. It is designed to help prospective teachers to analyze content and build unit-sized instructional sequences in which subject matter acquisition is complemented by the application of subject matter to tasks of personal and social significance.

Figure 1



The U-High model is displayed in Figure 1 on the previous page. Training in the use of this model is based on the rationales found in various curriculum theories for teaching subject matter in schools. It begins with an analysis of a unit-sized body of content on three levels of educational significance which is assigned to students by U-High supervisors at the beginning of the semester. These levels are indicated in Figure 1 by line A. Each level has a different rationale for teaching subject matter in schools. These are:

1. an intellectual rationale which dictates that subject matter be selected and organized on the basis of its importance to future learning in the discipline;

2. a personal rationale which dictates that subject matter be selected on the basis of its relevance to learners' needs and interests; and

3. a social rationale which dictates that subject matter be selected on the basis of its potential for resolving social issues.

In this model, subject matter selected on the basis of its importance to the discipline is treated as the lowest level of educational significance and subject matter selected on the basis of social utility as the highest.

The content analysis procedures require that prospective teachers build a knowledge structure comprising the three levels of educational significance. The lowest level of knowledge structure involves having prospective teachers select the most general ideas in their textbook chapter and organize the ideas around a general principle that subsumes and relates to other ideas found in the chapter. The second level of the knowledge structure involves having prospective teachers identify problems of a

personal nature that might be solved by utilizing the major ideas of the textbook chapter and having them identify problem-solving techniques that would be used by people educated in the discipline. The highest level of the knowledge structure involves having prospective teachers identify issues of social significance that could be addressed using the subject matter and modes of thought acquired at lower levels.

Following the content analysis, subjects in the experimental treatment were taught to use the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives to formulate behavioral objectives that corresponded to the levels of educational significance outlined in their knowledge structures. The categories of objectives specified in the taxonomy blend well with the levels of educational significance. Taxonomy objectives at the knowledge-comprehension category levels are congruent with the lowest level of the U-High/ALT model since objectives at this level are most appropriate to the goal of acquiring subject matter. Taxonomy objective test items in the knowledge-comprehension categories are also used to illustrate tasks which students would be expected to perform in classrooms during Level I learning activities. Similar uses of the taxonomy are made for Level II and Level III in the U-High/ALT model. At Level II, the application-analysis categories are used as most appropriate to working on tasks of personal significance. At the highest level, the synthesis-evaluation categories are used to address issues of social significance.

In the next phase of their content analysis (indicated by line B on Figure 1), prospective teachers planned instructional procedures to correspond to the levels of educational significance reflected in behavioral objectives. At the lowest level, during which subject matter is being

acquired, techniques of direct instruction were emphasized. Direct instruction gives teachers the maximum control over classroom interaction and this control is seen as necessary in initial stages of instruction to insure pupil attention and successful acquisition. At the second level, during which subject matter is applied to problems of personal significance, techniques of classroom management were emphasized. Management techniques, such as self-pacing and individualized learning packages, lessen direct teacher control while maximizing pupil-content instructions. At this level, pupil interest may be expected to insure engagement and the successful acquisition of knowledge at the previous level to insure pupil success. At the highest level, during which subject matter is used to address social issues, indirect instructional techniques were emphasized. Indirect instructional techniques, such as supportiveness, acting as a resource person or counseling students about difficulties, represent the least teacher control while maximizing pupil interaction with high-order content. At this level, continued pupil interest may be expected to insure engagement and successful application of knowledge at the previous level to insure pupil success.

Finally, line C in Figure 1 represents academic learning time (ALT). ALT in the model is a function of the teacher's ability to identify levels of educational significance through content analysis and to vary teaching and management strategies as appropriate to these levels of significance.

Following their content analysis, subjects are given opportunities to test the validity of their analyses by engaging in peer microteaching experiences. At the conclusion of microteaching, subjects in the experimental treatment return to U-High classrooms to teach their units to high school

pupils. U-High pupils are randomly assigned to subjects. Subjects work with their high school pupils in 50-minute sessions, five days a week, for three weeks. At the end of this time, subjects submit student achievement scores obtained by a final exam covering content acquisition and a pupil project. Records of ALT are also submitted. These student outcomes are used by U-High supervisors to assign grades in these clinical experiences. Members of the panel will now describe results obtained by subjects in the experimental treatment.

RESULTS

(Tape Summaries)

Barbara Blunk

Kathy Malone-Clesson

Eileen Kanzler

Summary - Panel Discussion

The panel discussion focused on the experiences of three University High Laboratory School teachers who had participated in the ALT research during the last few years. Ms. Barbara Blunk, a business teacher, offered her perceptions of prospective teachers functioning at the lower order of the typology. Since the pre-student teachers are frequently teaching out of their particular discipline, she selects insurance as the topic in business education which is most likely to be personally relevant and significant. The low-order level of instruction generally consumes about one week, and it is during this time that the basic material on the topic is taught. Lecture, recitation, question/answer, and set work are the principal teaching methods in this teacher-directed segment. One or two short quizzes to evaluate student comprehension and assess instructional skills may also be given. There is little, if any, Academic Learning Time accrued during the first week. By the end of the first week of instruction, each prospective teacher has composed twenty-five multiple choice questions over the material which, together with the supervising teacher's items, comprises a pool of test questions from which the final exam is compiled. The prospective teacher does not see the final exam until the actual testing date.

Ms. Blunk believed that the prospective teachers who are most effective are the ones who have internalized the unit information before beginning instruction and who have made important decisions on how to break the material down into manageable subtopics. Organization of the data may be in terms of importance; popularity, e.g., auto insurance; difficulty; or textbook sequence. They feel comfortable with the information and do not depend totally on the textbook or detailed written notes, but rather have

formulated a lesson plan outlining principal points. Classroom management also becomes a vital consideration in the early days of the first week, Ms. Blunk maintained, and prospective teachers who formally introduce themselves, stand while teaching, are able to readily identify students by name, and insist on order in the classroom have the highest potential for success. Prospective teachers who are not well prepared and who continually depend on the supervising teacher for direction "die" in the first week, she continued. On the other hand, those who are well prepared, show enthusiasm, seek advice and suggestions from the supervising teacher on occasion, and who have the ability to "read the kids" generally achieve high satisfaction as well as high scores on student tests. Blunk suggested that in future experiments a careful record be taken of tactics, procedures, and activities that work in order to improve teaching methods at this level of instruction.

The primary emphasis of Ms. Malone-Clesson was a description of the progression in an English class from lower- to higher-order thinking and how prospective teachers worked to increase student time on tasks. She reviewed the functional definition of Academic Learning Time as time students spend independent of a teacher with materials of instruction with which they are successful. To measure ALT increments, a daily record is kept separately by the prospective teacher and a reliable student in each group designated as pupil proctor. Their time estimates must nearly coincide or a reclarification of the concept becomes necessary. As prospective teachers move simultaneously to higher-order levels of thinking and

increase time on task, the resultant graph becomes fairly predictable:

Week #1	0-20% ALT
Week #2	20-40% ALT
Week #3	approx. 60% ALT

Malone-Clesson observed that successful prospective teachers demonstrated some common characteristics: They are knowledgeable beyond the textbook and come to the clinical experience armed with outside materials voluntarily. They have used their introductory weeks to familiarize themselves with the information and with the students. They appear excited about what they have discovered and the material is new and fresh. Frequently, they seem to be in the role of explorers along with the students they are teaching. By the second week, the prospective teachers instinctively test over the material presented and use the results for diagnostic purposes and to insure adequate basal information before proceeding to the next level. With rare exception, Malone-Clesson continued, the prospective teachers demonstrate a high level of expectation for the high school students. Because of the small group, the prospective teachers are able to develop a positive relationship with their students, help students to believe in their abilities, and establish confidence in their ideas. By way of example, the supervising teacher described an activity of a prospective teacher who tapped the talents of a theatre-major friend of hers to enact an original student poem. The result was most gratifying to the young student-poet who saw her poem worthy of interpretation. Characteristic of the second phase of the sequence was the search, find, share format in which the pre-student teacher joined students in inquiry research in the library and students tested ideas in preparation for the project of the third week.

Malone-Clesson interviewed three prospective teachers on their perceptions of the clinical experience. They related their initial high anxieties and low expectations for the sequence. They recalled asking for more direction and guidelines and sought reassurance and reinforcement from the supervising teacher. All three prospective teachers praised the value of teaching in the real-life situation. When questioned on the motivational aspect, one pre-student teacher in a biology class believed that the choice of main topic--in this case, animals--was the key factor in maintaining high interest throughout the three levels of the sequence. Many students had owned their own pets or had direct experience with dogs, cats, fish, etc. In moving from one phylum to another, high interest was maintained with knowledge of each new animal, and curiosity was sustained as each student reported on his/her investigations and research. With each higher level of thinking, motivation appeared to increase. In an assessment of the teaching model, a prospective teacher singled out the advantage of handling a block of material early in the semester, the opportunity to accomplish additional research on the material, and the necessity of preparing daily lesson plans in a real-life teaching environment. He discovered that he "could not conquer China in three weeks." The clinical experience afforded him the chance to judge both the material to be taught and time allotments for instruction of that material.

The higher-order phase of the sequence, the theme of Dr. Kanzler's comments, is the culmination of the teaching experience at U-High and seeks achievement of student-directed learning at the upper levels of knowledge with success and social or personal significance. In striving for that

goal, prospective teachers become totally immersed in the clinical experience. Most of them make noticeable gains in self-confidence; they learn from their mistakes; they become self-analytical and self-directed; there is a sense of purpose and dedication. The clinical experience for these pre-student teachers is the culmination of a semester's work. The U-High students generally welcome the change of pace; they like the small group patterns and the "fresh face behind the desk." Unfortunately, some students consider this phase a convenient one to relax and take things easy. Not all pupils utilize the allotted time as engaged time; they may chat with their friends or occupy themselves inappropriately. The presumption exists, Kanzler noted, that high school students want to be self-directed and will use time efficiently and effectively. This is not always the case and, particularly in this episode, confounds accurate measurement of ALT. Other students complain about teaching methods and delivery of the prospective teacher. They worry about covering all the material, and they are uncertain about the project goals and requirements. They ask for more advice from both the prospective and supervising teachers. However, the majority of students voluntarily cooperate with the pre-student teachers, strive to change their learning activities as they move to each level, and all attempt the final project. Kanzler contended that especially in the social studies, discussion problem solving, analysis, and self-directed reports are not new. What may be new and different about this clinical experience is that these strategies are planned, sequential, and integrated.

Certain pre-conditions have already been established which help to germinate ideas for the final project. Prospective teachers have worked

hard to teach a rather large body of information--a unit of 50-60 pages--in a relatively short period of time, and they have become very involved with the material. They are learning as they are teaching. Both prospective teachers and students are aware they are expected to move from one level to another, and they see the logic and relevance of the concept, at least at face value. Tactics and strategies may change as needs arise. Many students welcome the prospect of doing "outside work." The pre-student teacher also possesses a guideline of criteria for the project, and the aim at this point is to fit these criteria to the subject matter.

Most final projects are in written format--an essay, a report, a design, or a plan. Students compose something or they make and defend a judgment about an event or a character; they evaluate an action or a decision. All projects require library investigation and/or outside research. Perhaps 20% are more original, e.g., interviews in which pupils must compose appropriate questions, categorize data, and make warranted conclusions; a graphic presentation illustrating a theory or an insight; a musical or artistic program. Few pupils see the project as cumulative; nor do all prospective teachers look for the cumulative result. Many reports, plans, and essays are superficial and do not capitalize on previously learned data; they appear to lack critical and reflective thought. One prospective teacher posed the project problem: If the Civil War had not occurred, how would your life have been different? Most pupils considered only slavery and did not deal with either the complexities of slavery or other issues which led to the Civil War and which needed to be resolved in any evolution of the problem. On the other hand, a few students were cognizant of the multi-faceted issues of the war and worked to deal with

them in their project. In a business class, the problem was to design an insurance policy against a risk not presently insured. Two students devised policies on an unborn fetus and a married couple against divorce. Some prospective teachers are too vague in formulating requirements; others adopt the "tabula rasa" approach and ask for a reinvention of the wheel. Perhaps one-third give too much direction; 10-20% give little or no guidance after the initial project is established.

Pupils are encouraged to use research, inquiry, investigative and problem-solving skills; they are expected to be original and self-directed. Their uncertainty frequently becomes determination and for some engagement and involvement equals success. Considerable interaction occurs between the prospective teachers and their students with suggestions, hints, clues, and counseling. This last segment of the sequence affords the pre-student teachers the opportunity to re-evaluate the project in their own minds, honing and refining ideas as the process continues. Few pupils achieve the actual goal of a project at the higher order of knowledge; all make the attempt, however, and to some extent are successful and begin to approach the level.

Kanzler concluded by saying that she believed the procedure of moving from lower to higher levels of the knowledge structure conceptualized the classical meaning of education, i.e., "educo," to lead out of ignorance. The prospective teacher becomes not merely the dispenser of facts and dates but a catalyst and provocateur of learning. What emerges is a trilogy--an informational base, an internalization of that information, and, at the summit, an approach to wisdom.

RETROSPECTIVES

James Raths

Larry Freeman

Imperatives for Teacher Education

James Raths

As I listened to the panel members at the meeting today, as I discussed the ideas that were shared with participants during lunch time, and as I reflected on the themes that characterized our interests and concerns, the following "imperatives" stood out:

1. We need to differentiate between research on teacher effectiveness and research on teacher education. Although each approach should inform the other, the research problems that guide efforts in these fields are different.
2. We need to see teacher preparation less in the context of imparting skills, tactics, and strategies that "work" and give increased emphasis to developing in our candidates certain professional attributes and personal habits that permit them to practice the science and art of teaching in a flexible and effective manner.
3. It is imperative for us to begin working on the task of identifying assessment techniques that provide measures of the extent to which our teacher education programs are affecting the professional attributes and personal habits of our candidates.

I would like to discuss each of the imperatives in the paragraphs that follow.

Research on Teaching vs. Research on Teacher Education

We learned some time ago that research in learning was different from research on teaching. Because Skinner could demonstrate that learning takes place in small steps, it did not follow necessarily that teaching should be conducted in small steps. Those of us interested in working in teacher education can be thankful for the leadership of scholars such as Withall, Flanders, Hughes, Bellack, and many others who helped the field see the importance of research on teaching. As the focus of attention was directed to teacher education, most notably through the call for proposals issued by the United States Office of Education in the late 1960s to describe model pre-service programs, there was a sentiment abroad that the only question teacher educators had to address was "what to teach." And further, it was implied that researchers on teacher effectiveness would supply teacher educators with the answers to this question. If "being businesslike" in the classroom was associated with high scores on an achievement test, then teacher educators would know that teaching "being businesslike" was an important element of the teacher education curriculum. If asking higher-level questions was found to result in gains on a teacher-made test, then that skill too would be added to the teacher education curriculum. And so it went. As researchers reported findings that related a strategy or a skill or a tactic to a criterion of "gain" in achievement, they suggested that teacher educators introduce the strategy, skill, or tactic into the pre-service program.

There were several problems with this approach to program development. First, the criterion used in the research assessed only part of the responsibilities teachers accept in their professional roles. All teachers want

their students to do well on appropriate achievement tests, but they also have other goals--to promote interest in the subject matters they are teaching, to help students learn how to learn, to teach habits of scholarship, good citizenship, and democratic values--none of which has been included as criteria in the mainstream of research on teacher effectiveness. Second, many of our candidates know how to implement the skills that are associated with good teaching; the puzzle we are facing is how to develop the disposition on their part to use the skills in appropriate ways at appropriate times. For instance, optimum levels of praise are associated with effective teaching. Most of our candidates know how to praise their pupils; the problem is that many of them do not praise them. It is not the case that they lack the ability to praise; they lack, evidently, the disposition to praise. Finally, the scene reminds me a bit of the 21-year-old who complains to his parents about their not making him practice the piano for two hours a day when he was nine. Great advice, but at nine he obviously didn't see a need for playing the piano. The advice of "experts" or adults is not necessarily compelling to persons at differing levels of maturity. Candidates come to us with firm views about teaching and about how they are going to teach. To tell these candidates what "research" says about teaching is a useless exercise, as many experienced teacher educators know full well. We need to work harder on improving the understandings of our candidates about the teaching act before we lecture to them about the skills, tactics, and strategies that are needed in the role. And on the other hand, we must worry about some of our candidates who are eager to learn formulae for success, who are looking for cookbooks leading to effectiveness, who demonstrate a sponge-like quality in

preparing to be a teacher. All in all, working in teacher education is a lot more than learning what it is we should teach candidates; we need to study in more detail and with more precision what methods work to make what we are teaching more useful to our candidates. The latter is a major purpose of teacher education research. We need more work in this area.

Skills vs. Dispositions or Habits

I have addressed this contrast in part in the preceding paragraph. I used to have a colleague who thought that teaching doctoral students how to do an analysis of variance was in some respects like teaching a three-year-old how to swing a hammer. Once the skill is acquired, the toddler is convinced that everything needs hammering. So it is with the neophyte researcher with the skills to compute mean squares and F-ratios. Every problem looks like an ANOVA design. A similar phenomenon can take place when we focus teacher-education programs on skills, strategies, and tactics of teaching. The correlative problem here is that some of our candidates may well learn the skills we are teaching, but fail to learn when to use them or how to watch for side effects or caution signs to suggest that other patterns or approaches would be optimal in a particular situation.

The problem with focusing on narrow tactics, strategies, and behaviors can be expressed in other ways. As I stated in my paper found elsewhere in this volume, we are not so much interested in the behaviors we see, but in the traits, habits, or understandings that lie behind them. We are not interested in a teacher who smiles, but one who cares for his students. We are not interested in a teacher who asks higher-level questions, but one who is intellectually curious and who is interested in what his students

are thinking. The skills approach can miss the point, both on our own parts in working with candidates at the skill level and on the parts of our candidates as well.

Assessment of Teacher Education

There is nothing wrong with a trial-and-error approach to solving problems when at least we know when an error has been committed. And a trial-and-error approach is just about all we can fall back upon when there is a dearth of theory to guide practice. Although there are a number of attractive theories in teaching and in teacher education to guide our practice, none of them is thoroughly convincing to teacher educators. At the least, we should be evaluating our trials to assess the extent to which we are moving in the directions that are promising. To do this well, we need to learn how to assess the learnings of our candidates to discern the influences we have had on their understandings and behaviors. The technologies that are in current use have been almost worthless. We are not sanguine about testing the pupils of our candidates in an effort to assess their grasp of the educational objectives being implemented because we are convinced that so much of schooling transcends those goals that can be measured neatly on a standardized test. Further, we are wary of the use of gain scores because of the problem with regression threats, with the unreliability of gain scores, and with the understanding that students' pretest scores are more predictive of gain scores than are teacher behaviors.

We have some problems as well with observation techniques. Evaluation experts have called the process of sitting in on classes to make judgments about teachers to be "scandalous." Obviously, the visit itself changes the

events taking place in the classroom, making an "honest" evaluation virtually impossible. Interview, paper-and-pencil tests, and artifact analyses have been suggested as potential alternatives, but none of them has made much of an impact.

Clearly, we need to address this problem and solve the technical and conceptual problems entailed in it. Professor Medley of the University of Virginia has tried the route of the "in-basket" approach in which candidates make judgments about a series of problems typical of those faced by teachers. He is convinced that there are many different and acceptable right answers to most teaching-related questions, but there is a consensus about answers that are "wrong." He develops the key to his instruments by scoring answers as wrong and the better candidates mark fewer wrong answers. He has given up discriminating among the "better" answers. There is some promise there. Another approach is to make use of techniques developed by attribution theorists to identify the understandings and conceptual bases of candidates. This approach approximates a projective test, asking candidates to name attributes that differentiate among pupils. The adjectives generated tell more about the candidates than the pupils that are being described. The same technique can be used to seek out understandings of lesson plans, tests, pupil performances, text books, and similar elements of the classroom setting. That candidates may be revealing more about themselves than they would normally choose to do is both an asset and a debit. It does serve to help us understand better the conceptual bases of our candidates' thinking and in a form that would permit us to intervene to improve those understandings. On the other hand, it could be argued that the technique is an invasion of privacy, and cautions need

to be exercised in how the information gleaned from the technique is shared and acted upon. Nevertheless, I would suggest that a top-level concern for teacher education is to develop assessment techniques which suggest that teacher education is having an impact and in the intended direction. This problem should be at the top of our research agenda.

Summary

I have attempted to summarize what I saw as the major themes reflected in the presentations, the responses the panels shared at the meeting, and the informal conversations that were held during the day. Of course, others will have found additional themes or will be mystified at why I saw these particular ideas as prevalent. So it goes. In any event, we need more meetings such as this one so that practicing teacher educators can share their ideas, their research, and their puzzlements.

A PROGRAM MANAGER'S AGENDA FOR IMPROVING SECONDARY TEACHER CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

Larry D. Freeman, Manager

Teacher Education Program Approval

Teacher Education Program Approval--Larry D. Freeman, Manager

My thinking about the preparation of secondary teachers since the conference sponsored by ISU has been stimulated by the paper read by Dr. James Raths. As I read his argument, Raths essentially argues for a "holistic" rather than piecemeal evaluation of prospective and practicing teachers. While the boundaries between "holistic" and other orientations toward evaluation of teachers remain blurred for me, it seems to me that Raths' stance toward evaluation essentially amounts to an assessment of the teacher's socialization into the teaching profession as judged against imprecise and perhaps implicit rather than explicit norms. In general, Raths seems to view teaching as an art rather than a science, an enterprise that relies heavily on intuitive judgments and actions and not on careful analysis of how the teacher relates to students and the subject matter taught. My understanding of Raths' position may be incorrect and my rehearsal of his views is not intended as a critique but as an explanation of why I have been thinking about the socialization of the secondary teacher.

We need to think about this matter, I believe, because recent reports on the status of American public education such as A Nation at Risk focus mostly on perceived shortcomings of public high schools. There is little attention paid to elementary schools in this recent spate of commentary and analysis, a significant change from the late sixties and early seventies when federal monies were pumped into elementary schools. One might surmise from the lack of critiques on elementary schools that Johnny and Maria can now read and cipher and that the secondary schools fail to insure acquisition of certain capabilities prized by significant segments of the public.

Or one might explain the attention to high schools as stemming from a view that says high schools, as the institution having the last try at educating children, fail to insure the desired competence, even if it means they have to overcome deficiencies remaining after elementary school. At any rate, it i clear that secondary rather than elementary schools are the center of attention presently. Secondary schools perhaps deserve this kind of criticism and may deserve it for a number of complex reasons. Among these reasons may be 1) a loss of focus as high schools have sought to become increasingly comprehensive; 2) an effort to imitate collegiate curricular reform in the sixties and seventies resulting in secondary curricula with few requirements and many electives; 3) principals increasingly becoming managers rather than instructional leaders; and 4) inadequately prepared teachers.

Here I wish to focus on the last of these probable causes: inadequately prepared secondary teachers. In the past, the major distinction between preparing elementary and secondary teachers has been an emphasis on an academic specialization for secondary candidates. While elementary teachers are broadly prepared, the preparation of secondary teachers is disciplinary in orientation. This reflects on our tendency to refer to elementary teachers generically as "teachers" or "elementary teachers" and to secondary teachers as "English," "French," or "mathematics" teachers. The secondary teacher is viewed as being a major in a disciplinary area with a modicum of preparation in teaching. As a result, the secondary teacher stands on the isthmus connecting elementary teachers as well as with the college professor. They face the difficulty of integrating the

pedagogical and the disciplinary. While the notion of the "scholarteacher" may assist in integrating these two aspects of secondary teaching, effecting this integration is likely to require some rethinking of the organizational formats we use in preparing secondary teachers. It appears that formats designed to socialize the prospective teachers in new ways may need to be invented. The impetus of disciplinary studies creates a milieu for secondary teachers in which teaching the poetry of Milton is more highly prized than teaching reading and grammar, one in which the French teacher aspires to guide students through Sartre in the original rather than syntax and phonology, one in which the mathematics teacher waits patiently for the day when she can teach calculus rather than remedial mathematics. On the other hand, under current arrangements, the impetus of professional education is more generic and, for the secondary teacher, essentially represents an adaptation of preparation for elementary teachers.

Agenda Item I: Conceptualizing Preservice Secondary Education Programs

During my tenure of nine years as Manager of Teacher Education Program Approval, it has become increasingly clear that while prospective secondary teachers need a thorough grounding in the disciplinary areas they will teach, they need a comprehensive understanding of these areas and of how they relate to the rest of the secondary curriculum. Indeed, most of the deficiencies in secondary programs identified through the program approval process in recent years have not been in the professional education component of programs but in the academic specializations and the component addressing how to teach the disciplines. Mathematics programs tend to ignore geometry or geometries; social studies programs tend to ignore the

Third World; foreign language programs ignore oral competence in favor of literary studies; and science programs are bereft of work in the philosophy and history of science. The point of these examples is to highlight not specific lapses in programs but an apparent assumption that the academic preparation of secondary teachers does not need to be specifically developed in response to public school curricula and the role of the secondary teacher.

The same kind of dilemma appears in the evaluation of the practical performance of prospective secondary teachers. Are they to be evaluated as prospective teachers-in-general or as prospective teachers of a specific discipline? My general impression is that in this case, we tend to evaluate the candidate as a teacher-in-general. My impression is based in large part upon examination of evaluation forms used by teacher education institutions. While we insist on a specialized academic preparation before student teaching, we evaluate a secondary student teacher as though it makes no difference what area is being taught. A lesson plan apparently is a lesson plan regardless of discipline; classroom management skills apparently are regarded as the same whether the student teacher is in charge of a class of sixty in physical education, a class of twenty working on computers, or a class of thirty in vocational programs. There is yet another apparent assumption: the subject matter taught need not be related to the overall instructional goals of the particular building or of the district. This list of apparent assumptions can easily be amplified.

There is, then, a kind of schizophrenia in our conception of how secondary teachers are to be prepared. On the one hand, we assert that they are academic specialists and on the other we assert that they are

teachers-in-general. It is this schizophrenic behavior that may lead to unsavory and contradictory proposals, on the one hand, to certificate and employ mathematics and science teachers who have no pedagogical background (see A Nation at Risk) and on the other, to popularize beliefs that what is important is not subject-matter knowledge but the capacity to display positive effects in the classroom and manage a group of adolescents.

Agenda Item II: Reshape Organizational and Management Structures of Programs

The source of this difficulty from my point is not an intentional lapse in commitment on the part of preparation institutions nor an incapacity to address this problem successfully. Rather, the difficulty is a manifestation of an incompatibility between the goals we seek to fulfill, and the way in which we manage the enterprise and a failure to attend to the socialization of secondary teachers. Most secondary programs operate out of two distinct cultures: that of the college or department providing work in the specialization and the college or department of education. The cultures tend to pursue different values and frequently have different conceptions of what it means to "teach." Both cultures express themselves in "courses" to which credit hours are attached. The culture of the department or college is forcibly and, perhaps, artificially divided into three-semester-hour chunks. In the process, the officially sanctioned conception of the program is compromised, the overall goal lost sight of, and eventually completing a program means acquiring the right combination of credit hours and having paid the required fees. An articulated and coherent program loses its integrity and is likely to become a potpourri of courses. Its relationship to what is needed to teach effectively in the

secondary schools evaporates. And we leave the candidate with the task of working out a way of "fitting in" to secondary schools.

What then are we to do? I have not raised these issues as a means of proposing my pet solutions to the problems in preparing secondary teachers. I have no such solution. I am not certain how it is that the system for managing the preparation of secondary teachers and the goals we seek can be made compatible. There are no simple answers, but there are at least three issues that, if examined carefully, may lead to workable proposals.

Issue 1: The Taxonomy of the Curriculum

The taxonomy of the curriculum or of the disciplines as manifested in higher education is not the same as those prevailing in secondary schools. It would be surprising if they were. At the same time, the incongruence of these two taxonomies leads to some significant problems in preparing secondary educators. An obvious incompatibility occurs in the social sciences. In higher education, the tendency is not to organize the curriculum under the broad rubric of social sciences, but high schools do. At least organizationally, if not conceptually, higher education speaks of sociology, economics, history, political science, and so on. In public secondary schools, courses are frequently offered in each of these areas, but from a broader focus than the specific discipline. Higher education's English becomes language arts; its distinctions among the science disciplines are treated as science or perhaps life and physical sciences. While the perspectives of both higher education and of secondary schools are understandable on their own terms, the incompatibilities between them suggest the need to re-examine the taxonomy of the disciplines underlying secondary teacher preparation.

Issue 2: The Evaluation of Practical Performance

There is, I believe, a tendency to evaluate prospective secondary teachers from the same perspective as practicing teachers are evaluated. That is, the evaluation undertaken by teacher education institutions typically attempts to encompass all aspects of what is expected of a teacher as a professional. As a result, this broad-based evaluation may lead to diffused and confusing results. It may be that teacher education institutions should restrict their evaluations of practical performance to the delivery of instruction. This would allow institutions to center on the question, "Is this person a good secondary teacher?" While the second question may be more interesting and critical, institutions of higher education may not be able to respond to it legitimately.

Issue 3: The Management of Teacher Education

The management of secondary teacher education needs to be thoroughly re-examined, though doing so is a complex task and may unleash reverberations that run throughout an institution. We have tended to examine and re-examine our values, assumptions, and goals, perhaps endlessly, but we have not been very serious about even looking at the mundane management structures and actions that effectively shape the way preparing teachers goes, frequently in ways counter to our values. Review of these mundane structures and actions seems mostly to result in either a conclusion that "that's the way things are and they can't be changed" or arguments that the present management structures are rational and "make sense." These conclusions perhaps emerge either because of a sense of powerlessness or because of a belief that "form follows function," the latter alternative implying that if we could only get clear about what we <u>really</u> want, the form would

follow. Yet a poet who attends only to form or to thematic content usually writes rotten poetry. Good poets know that form and content, if they are, in fact, distinguishable, play off against one another. The same is true in managing the preparation and socialization of secondary teachers.

There are some models that might be looked at again: The MAT programs now mostly disbanded, the NDEA institutes of the sixties and seventies, some of the management strategies and styles used in the private sector, structures such as those used at Evergreen State College. I suggest these alternatives not as models to be imitated but as sources for experimental ideas and new ways of organizing for the preparation of secondary teachers--whether at the undergraduate or graduate levels.

The State's Role in Reshaping Secondary Programs

This brings me to the role of the state in this business. The state cannot legislate improvements in the preparation of secondary teachers. At best, it can do two things. At the non-regulatory level, the state can provide a forum and some moral leadership in exploring issues in this area. At the regulatory level, it can generate rules or policies that may directly address improvements in teacher education, but which require institutions to rethink what they are doing and, as an unanticipated consequence, influence preparation of secondary teachers. Clearly, the first alternative is preferable, but it means that institutions must be experiencing restlessness, a sense that everything is not all right, a desire to try something new. In the absence of such discomfort at institutions, any changes or improvements are likely to result rather randomly from regulatory actions by the state, actions that may or may not be necessary but which are likely to establish more constraints rather than impel experimentation.

SECONDARY EDUCATION CONFERENCE
ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY, EWING CASTLE
April 22, 8:45-1:00 p.m.

THEME: NEW DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN THE '80s

CONFERENCE SCHEDULE

8:45 a.m.	Coffee, Ewing Castle
9:00 a.m.	Welcome to Conference - Dean William S. Dunifon
9:15 a.m.	General Session:
	Opening Remarks, John V. Godbold, Assistant Dean, College of Education, Illinois State University.
	"Teacher Behaviors and Teacher Traits: Implications for Certification." James D. Raths, Professor of Education, University of Illinois.
10:15 a.m.	Reactions to Speaker:
	Larry Freeman, Manager Program Approval Section, State Board of Education.
	Calvin Jackson, Superintendent of Schools, Fairbury-Cropsey.
	Frank Lutz, Professor of Political Science and Education, Eastern Illinois University.
10:45 a.m.	Panel Presentation:
	Teacher Behavior and Student Time On Task Measures in Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences.
	Morton D. Waimon, Professor of Education; Barbara Blunk, Eileen Kanzler, Kathy Malone-Clesson, Mike Surma, Faculty Associates; Andrew Andreatta, Susan Johnson, Carla Briggs, Students.
11:30 a.m.	Lunch
12:30 p.m.	Retrospective--John V. Godbold
	Reactions to Conference and Suggestions for Changes in Teacher Certification--James D. Raths and Conference Participants.
1:00 p.m.	Adjournment